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SPECTROPHOTOMETRIC REMOTE SENSING OF THE DIFFUSE AURORA

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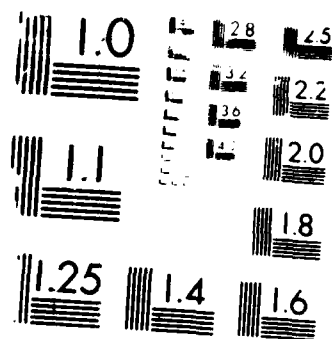
UNCLASSIFIED

LMSC/D068460 N00014-79-C-0824

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FINAL REPORT

For Period Ending 30 September 1987

ONR Contract N00014-79-C-0824

SPECTROPHOTOMETRIC REMOTE SENSING
OF THE DIFFUSE AURORA

30 November 1987

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Office of Naval Research
800 North Quincy Street
Arlington, Virginia 22217

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REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE

Form Approved
OMB No. 0704-0188

1a. REPORT SECURITY CLASSIFICATION UNCLASSIFIED			1b. RESTRICTIVE MARKINGS A188599	
2a. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION AUTHORITY			3. DISTRIBUTION/AVAILABILITY OF REPORT UNLIMITED. CLEARED FOR PUBLIC RELEASE AND SALE.	
2b. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE			5. MONITORING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER(S)	
4. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER(S) LMSC/D068460				
6a. NAME OF PERFORMING ORGANIZATION LOCKHEED PALO ALTO RESEARCH LABORATORY		6b. OFFICE SYMBOL (If applicable)		7a. NAME OF MONITORING ORGANIZATION OFFICE OF NAVAL RESEARCH DEPARTMENT OF THE NAVY
6c. ADDRESS (City, State, and ZIP Code) 3251 HANOVER ST. B/255 PALO ALTO, CA. 94304		7b. ADDRESS (City, State, and ZIP Code) 800 NORTH QUINCY ST. ARLINGTON, VIRGINIA 22217-5000		
8a. NAME OF FUNDING / SPONSORING ORGANIZATION AIR FORCE GEOPHYSICS LAB.		8b. OFFICE SYMBOL (If applicable)		9. PROCUREMENT INSTRUMENT IDENTIFICATION NUMBER CONTRACT N00014-79-C-0824
8c. ADDRESS (City, State, and ZIP Code) HANSCOM AFB. MA 01731		10. SOURCE OF FUNDING NUMBERS		
		PROGRAM ELEMENT NO	PROJECT NO	TASK NO
		WORK UNIT ACCESSION NO		
11. TITLE (Include Security Classification) SPECTROPHOTOMETRIC REMOTE SENSING OF THE DIFFUSE AURORA				
12. PERSONAL AUTHOR(S) R. R. VONDRAK AND R. M. ROBINSON				
13a. TYPE OF REPORT FINAL REPORT		13b. TIME COVERED FROM 1 AUG. 79 TO 30 NOV 87		14. DATE OF REPORT (Year, Month, Day) 1987, NOVEMBER 30
15. PAGE COUNT				
16. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTATION				
17. COSATI CODES			18. SUBJECT TERMS (Continue on reverse if necessary and identify by block number)	
FIELD	GROUP	SUB-GROUP	ELECTRON PRECIPITATION	
			X-RAYS	
			REMOTE SENSING	
19. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse if necessary and identify by block number)				
<p>Auroral electron precipitation produces both E-region ionization and bremsstrahlung X-rays. In a set of coordinated observations these atmospheric effects of electron precipitation were measured simultaneously by the X-ray sensor on the DMSP/F2 spacecraft and by the incoherent-scatter radar at Chatanika, Alaska. In all data sets there was good agreement between the locations of the X-ray source regions and the regions of enhanced E-region ionization. Detailed comparisons were made between the measured and inferred altitude profiles of ionization for two auroral conditions, a premidnight auroral band and a sunlit diffuse aurora. These comparisons validate the ability to infer auroral ionization from satellite-based X-ray measurements.</p>				
20. DISTRIBUTION/AVAILABILITY OF ABSTRACT <input type="checkbox"/> UNCLASSIFIED/UNLIMITED <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> SAME AS RPT <input type="checkbox"/> DTIC USERS			21. ABSTRACT SECURITY CLASSIFICATION UNCLASSIFIED	
22a. NAME OF RESPONSIBLE INDIVIDUAL			22b. TELEPHONE (Include Area Code)	22c. OFFICE SYMBOL

INTRODUCTION

Ionization in the earth's atmosphere is produced primarily by solar illumination and incoming energetic particles. Ionization produced by solar illumination is well understood and can be accurately modeled. But at high latitudes, particularly at night, the dominant source of ionization may be precipitating protons and electrons with energies less than about 100 keV. This makes modeling high latitude ionization difficult because these particle fluxes may be temporally and spatially varying. Global specification of the distribution of ionization at high latitudes is best done using detectors on space-based platforms capable of viewing a large portion of the earth at one time. This method involves detecting electromagnetic radiation originating from the impact of charged particles into the atmosphere. This radiation may be in the X-ray, ultraviolet, or visible portion of the spectrum. The X-ray and ultraviolet techniques hold great promise for remotely sensing ionization because of the absence of a background emission source that prohibits imaging of aurorally-produced emissions in the sunlit hemisphere. However, detailed comparisons between modeled and measured auroral emissions are required to assess the accuracy of these techniques.

In this study we compare simultaneous measurements by the Chatanika radar and the DMSP-F2 satellite X-ray detector to demonstrate that remote X-ray observations can be used to infer the ionization produced by diffuse auroral electron precipitation. Globally, diffuse auroral electron precipitation accounts for the bulk of the energy deposited in Earth's atmosphere by precipitating particles. Thus, it is important to validate remote sensing techniques using emissions produced by this type of aurora. In this study, the accuracy of the X-ray remote sensing is assessed by a quantitative comparison between the profiles of ionization measured by the ground-based incoherent-scatter radar and the profiles inferred from the satellite-based X-ray measurements. Measurements were made in two types of diffuse aurora: a dynamic evening diffuse aurora and a sunlit diffuse aurora in the morning sector.

The work described herein was performed under support from the Air Force Geophysics Laboratory in collaboration with Drs. P. F. Mizera and D. J. Gorney of the Aerospace Corporation who provided the DMSP X-ray data. The results of this study have been reported by Vondrak et al. (1987).



INFERENCE OF AURORAL ELECTRON FLUXES FROM X-RAYS

Precipitating electrons interact with the atmosphere to produce ionization and various forms of electromagnetic radiation. Excitation of neutral and ionic constituents caused by impact of primary and secondary electrons leads to optical emissions at virtually all wavelengths. In addition, the slowing down of the primary electrons produces bremsstrahlung X-ray emission. The inference of ionization produced by the precipitating electrons is done by determining their spectral distribution from the measured emissions. Because we are here restricting our discussion to altitudes between 80 and 200 km, the electron energy range of interest is approximately 500 eV to 100 keV. Once the electron spectral distribution is known, the resulting ionization can be accurately modeled (see, for example, Vondrak and Robinson, 1985). Thus, remote sensing depends on the accuracy with which the energy distribution of the precipitating electrons can be determined from the measured emissions.

The flux of X-rays F_x of energy E_x is given by

$$F_x(E_x) = \int_{E_x}^{\infty} \Phi(E_x, E_e) F_e(E_e) dE_e \quad (1)$$

where F_e is the flux of electrons of energy E_e . The function $\Phi(E_x, E_e)$ is a source function relating the two fluxes. In this expression, absorption of X-rays in the atmosphere is neglected; this is justified for most auroral electron spectra where the average energy of the electrons is well below about 40 keV. Determination of the electron fluxes from the measured X-ray fluxes involves deconvolution of this integral equation. There have been several approaches to this problem. For the experiments described below we use the inversion technique described by Brown (1972). Errors may arise in the inversion procedure, particularly at low electron energies, because for typical auroral electron spectra most of the low energy X-rays are produced by higher energy electrons. Small errors in the measurement of the high energy X-ray flux can thus translate to large errors in the low energy electron flux. Fortunately, however, electrons with energies below a few keV are relatively inefficient at producing E region ionization, so that the electron density profiles determined from the inferred electron spectra are fairly well reproduced.

DESCRIPTION OF EXPERIMENTS

The ground-based ionization measurements were made with the Chatanika incoherent-scatter radar (Leadabrand et al., 1972; Baron, 1977; Vondrak, 1983). For these experiments the radar was generally operated in a variety of modes consisting of combinations of elevation scans and of fixed-position measurements. The ionization was measured with a range resolution of 4.5 km and with integration times of about 15 sec. Because the satellite and radar measurements are generally not spatially coincident nor simultaneous, ground-based all-sky photographs were used when possible to relate the measurements during the nighttime passes. Visible auroral imagery from the DMSP-F2 satellite was not available for the cases used in this study.

X-ray measurements were made with an auroral X-ray sensor on the DMSP-F2 satellite (Mizera et al., 1978). DMSP-F2 is in a nearly sun-synchronous circular polar orbit at an altitude of 830 km. The sensor field of view is 2° by 14° , providing an in-track spatial resolution of about 50 km and a cross-track resolution of about 350 km. This corresponds to about 0.5° of latitude by about 0.5 hour of local time. The downlooking X-ray sensor provides integral X-ray measurements in fifteen energy channels from 1.4 to 20 keV. These X-ray spectra were converted to equivalent incident electron spectra using the inversion technique described by Brown (1972). From these electron spectra we calculated the ionization production rate q as a function of altitude using the method of Rees (1963). The electron density n , was calculated assuming the model effective recombination coefficient α given by Vickrey et al. (1982). A transport-free equilibrium solution was used for the electron continuity equation, such that the electron density as a function of altitude z is given by

$$n(z) = \left[\frac{q(z)}{\alpha(z)} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (2)$$

For the sunlit cases the production rate due to electron precipitation was added to the solar photoionization rate specified in the empirical model of Robinson and Vondrak (1984).

Precipitating electron fluxes in eight differential energy channels from 1-20 keV were measured once per second by the J/3 instrument on DMSP. Whenever available, the precipitating electron data were used as an independent test of the validity of the X-ray spectral inversion technique (see also, Mizera and Gorney, 1982).

The entire set of simultaneous Chatanika/DMSP-F2 observations was searched for cases that satisfy the criteria of spatial and temporal coincidence, with aurora present

within the Chatanika field-of-view. Another constraint was that the auroral luminosity and ionization had to be fairly homogenous over the X-ray sensor field of view. Only four cases were identified that met these criteria. In all cases there was good spatial coincidence between the regions of enhanced X-ray luminosity and the regions of enhanced ionization. During two cases the conditions of simultaneity and homogeneity were sufficiently good to allow a detailed quantitative comparison between the measured and inferred altitude profiles of ionization. In the next section we present in detail the observations made on these two days that are representative of auroral conditions in the evening sector and in the morning sunlit sector.

OBSERVATIONS OF AN EVENING AURORA

On 21 February 1979 the DMSP-F2 satellite passed slightly to the east of Chatanika at 0727 UT (2127 local time). The location of the satellite ground track is shown in Figure 1. During that night the Chatanika radar was operated in alternating elevation scans and fixed-position measurements. The E-region limits of the elevation scan closest in time to the satellite pass is shown in Figure 1.

During the DMSP pass there were bright auroral bands south and overhead of Chatanika. During the satellite pass the radar was pointed in several fixed positions within the auroral band. Following the satellite pass, the bright auroral bands moved southward. The Chatanika elevation scan began in the south within the bright auroral band. All-sky camera photographs taken at that time showed that the auroral band extended over the southern sky from the northwest to the southeast as shown by the shaded region in Figure 1. On the figure are shown the times corresponding to the beginning and end of the radar elevation scan. As the radar scanned northward the auroral conditions changed dramatically with the sudden appearance of rayed arcs and reduced auroral luminosity. These temporal variations were evident both in the all-sky photographs and in the Chatanika measurements made in the fixed-position mode and during the elevation scan. The radar ionization measurements during the elevation scan closest in time to the satellite pass are shown in Figure 2. The contours show electron density as a function of altitude and invariant latitude in the magnetic meridian plane. Conspicuous features are the enhanced ionization between 62° and 66° latitude that is associated with the bright visible auroral band, and the high-altitude ionization in the north between 66.6° and 67.2° . This latter ionization is associated with the rayed arcs that appeared after the satellite pass. The

peak E-region electron density in the bright auroral band varied between $3 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and $6 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and was situated at altitudes between 110 and 120 km. Electron densities in the rayed arcs maximized at altitudes near 140 km.

The X-ray sensor on the DMSP satellite detected enhanced X-ray fluxes at the latitudes near Chatanika. Because of the temporal variations in the aurora after the satellite pass, we compare the radar and satellite measurements made in the bright auroral band to the south of Chatanika which remained relatively stable. The energy distribution of bremsstrahlung X-rays in the auroral band south of Chatanika is shown in the first panel of Figure 3. Because of the large field of view of the X-ray sensor, this distribution represents a spatial average of the X-ray fluxes produced in the band.

The precipitating electron energy distribution inferred from the X-ray distribution in the auroral band is shown in the middle panel of Figure 3. For comparison we show in Figure 3 the direct measurement of the precipitating electron flux by the J/3 electron detector on DMSP. The J/3 electron measurements were made on the same field lines as the X-ray sensor field of view and were averaged over a time interval that corresponds to the X-ray sensor field of view along the satellite ground track divided by the satellite velocity. Good agreement is evident; both the measured and inferred spectra indicate average electron energies of about 7 keV with a total energy flux of $10.8 \text{ ergs/cm}^2\text{-s}$.

The third panel in Figure 3 shows the ionization profile computed from the electron fluxes that were inferred from the X-ray data. For comparison we show the range in electron density measured by the radar in the auroral band at several different altitudes. At most altitudes the inferred densities are slightly less than the range in densities measured by the radar.

OBSERVATIONS OF A SUNLIT MORNING AURORA

On 15 June 1978 the DMSP satellite passed slightly to the east of Chatanika at 1546 UT (0546 local time on 16 June), as shown in Figure 4. Because this date is close to the summer solstice, sunrise at Chatanika was more than four hours prior to the DMSP pass. The solar zenith angle at Chatanika was about 70° during the satellite pass.

The Chatanika radar was operated in continuous sequential elevation scans for several hours before and after the satellite pass. Figure 5 shows the latitudinal distribution of ionization measured during the elevation scan made at the time of the satellite pass. A

broad region of diffuse aurora is visible over Chatanika with maximum ionization of about $3 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ between 115 and 120 km altitude. Thus, the average energy of the electrons producing the ionization was similar to that observed during the evening aurora described above. Because no visible auroral imagery was available for this sunlit case, we examined data from successive elevation scans to determine the stability of the auroral precipitation during the satellite pass. In Figure 6 we show the maximum E region electron density measured by the radar during nine consecutive elevation scans. The data are plotted as a function of invariant latitude and magnetic local time. The maximum E region densities were slightly higher at earlier local times, but the aurora was otherwise fairly stable. The locations of measurements made during the scan that was simultaneous with the DMSP satellite pass are shown by the heavy line on the left side of the plot. The DMSP trajectory and the X-ray detector field of view are also shown.

An X-ray spectral distribution measured by the DMSP instrument during the satellites passage over the diffuse aurora is shown in the first panel of Figure 7. Comparing this spectral distribution with that shown in Figure 3 shows that the spectral shapes are very similar, with the morning sector fluxes lower by about a factor of seven from those measured in the evening sector event. The inferred electron spectrum therefore has an average energy of about 6 keV and energy flux of $1.5 \text{ ergs/cm}^2\text{-s}$. The middle panel of Figure 7 shows the production rate of ionization resulting from the inferred electron fluxes. The peak ionization rate occurs near 115 km altitude and falls off rapidly at altitudes above the peak. However, solar illumination must also be taken into account in estimating the observed ionization. The rate of ionization produced by solar illumination for a solar zenith angle of 70° was determined using the results of Robinson and Vondrak (1984) and is shown in the middle panel of Figure 7. Although the ionization produced near the E region peak by sunlight is small compared to that produced by precipitating electrons, the solar contribution is dominant at higher altitudes. The resulting electron densities are shown in the third panel of Figure 7. For comparison, the horizontal bars show the range in electron densities measured by the radar across the diffuse auroral region. The inferred profile falls well within the range observed by the radar.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The comparative analysis of the Chatanika/DMSP data sets shows that satellite-borne X-ray measurements can be used to infer quantitatively the spatial distribution of electron energy deposition and ionization in the auroral ionosphere. For all the cases that were analyzed, the X-ray measurements could be used to identify the regions of electron energy distribution measured independently with the Chatanika radar and the all-sky camera. For two of the cases, auroral conditions were sufficiently uniform and stable to allow a detailed comparison between electron densities computed from inferred energetic electron fluxes and electron densities measured directly by incoherent scatter radar. The data were obtained during observations of an active evening sector aurora and a morning sector diffuse aurora. The average energy of the precipitating electrons in both cases was about 6 keV in the most intense regions. The energy flux in the morning sector event was lower by about a factor of seven from that in the evening sector event. This difference in the inferred energy flux was consistent with the factor of two to three difference in the E-region peak electron density. Because the morning sector aurora was sunlit, the contribution to the total ionization produced by photoionization had to be added to bring the inferred and measured profiles into agreement. This is the first time quantitative remote sensing of ionization in a sunlit aurora has been accomplished.

In the two cases described in detail above, the X-ray measurements represented spatial averages because of the large field of view of the detector. Thus, the inferred profiles were compared with the range in electron densities measured by the radar during a scan. The agreement between the inferred and measured densities depends on a combination of statistical accuracy of the measurements, temporal variations of the ionosphere, inhomogeneities over the satellite sensor field of view, and uncertainties in the calculation of ionization from the bremsstrahlung measurements. An additional uncertainty in the X-ray remote sensing technique is the presence of proton precipitation. Although electrons are the dominant source of ionization in the aurora on a global basis, precipitating protons can occasionally produce comparable or even greater amounts of ionization (*Basu et al.*, 1987). Because precipitating protons produce no bremsstrahlung X-rays, their presence and the associated ionization cannot be detected by the X-ray imager.

Despite these uncertainties, it is obvious from our results that the X-ray remote sensing technique holds great promise for monitoring auroral electron precipitation on a global

basis. Because the X-ray technique also yields information about the spectral distribution of the auroral electrons, these measurements can be used to determine the height profile of electron density at altitudes below 200 km. Further observations of the type described above are important in establishing the range in auroral conditions under which the technique is applicable.

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. DMSP groundtrack over Alaska on 21 February 1979. The location of the bright auroral band at 0732 UT is shaded. Also shown are the E-region limits of the Chatanika radar elevation scan and the field of view of the DMSP X-ray sensor.

Figure 2. Contour plot of electron densities as a function of altitude and invariant latitude measured by the radar during a meridian scan on 21 February, 1979.

Figure 3. X-ray fluxes measured by DMSP, electron fluxes measured by J/3 detector and inferred from X-ray measurements and measured and inferred electron densities for evening sector auroral band.

Figure 4. DMSP groundtrack over Alaska on 15 June 1978. The DMSP X-ray detector field of view is shown along with the latitudinal extent of the morning sector diffuse aurora observed by the radar.

Figure 5. Contour plot of electron densities as a function of altitude and invariant latitude measured by the radar during a meridian scan on 21 February, 1979.

Figure 6. Variation of peak E-region density with latitude and magnetic local time as inferred from nine consecutive radar elevation scans.

Figure 7. X-ray fluxes measured by DMSP, height profile of ionization production rate due to kilovolt electrons and sunlight, and measured and inferred electron densities for the morning sector sunlit diffuse aurora.

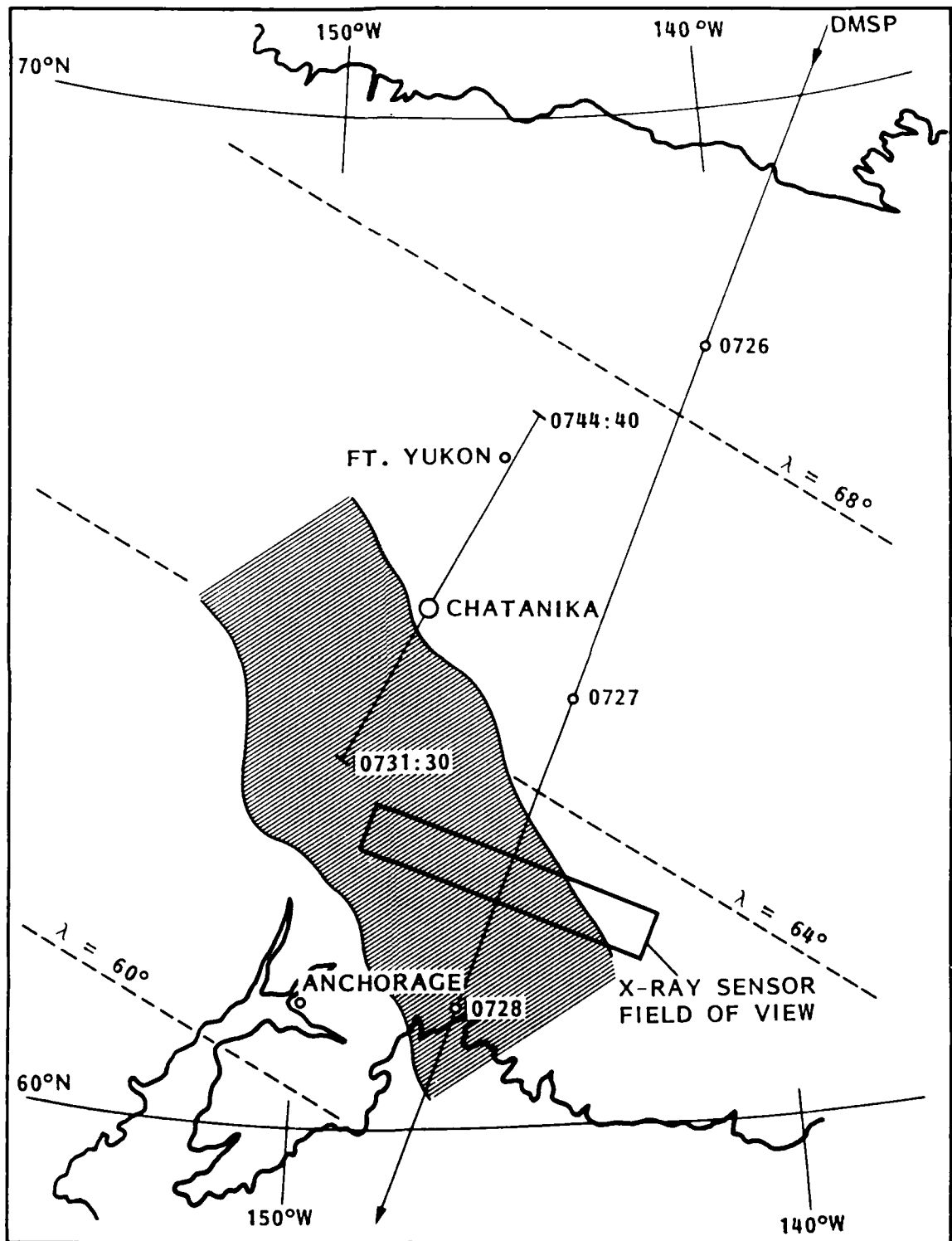


FIGURE 1

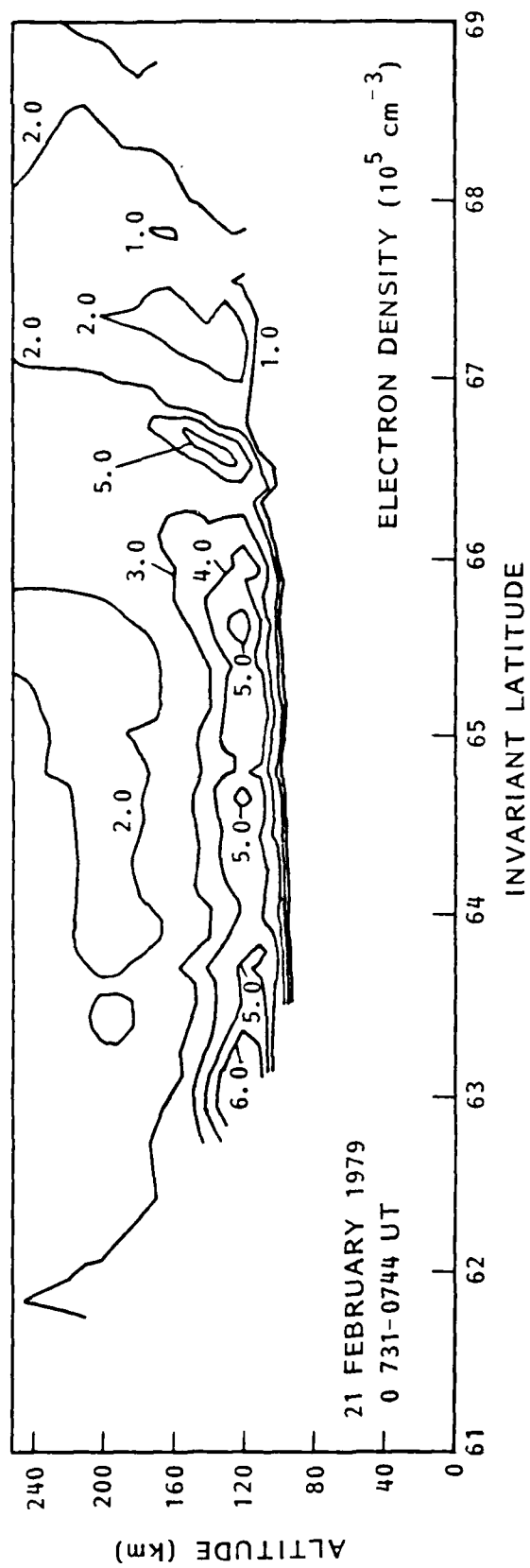


FIGURE 2

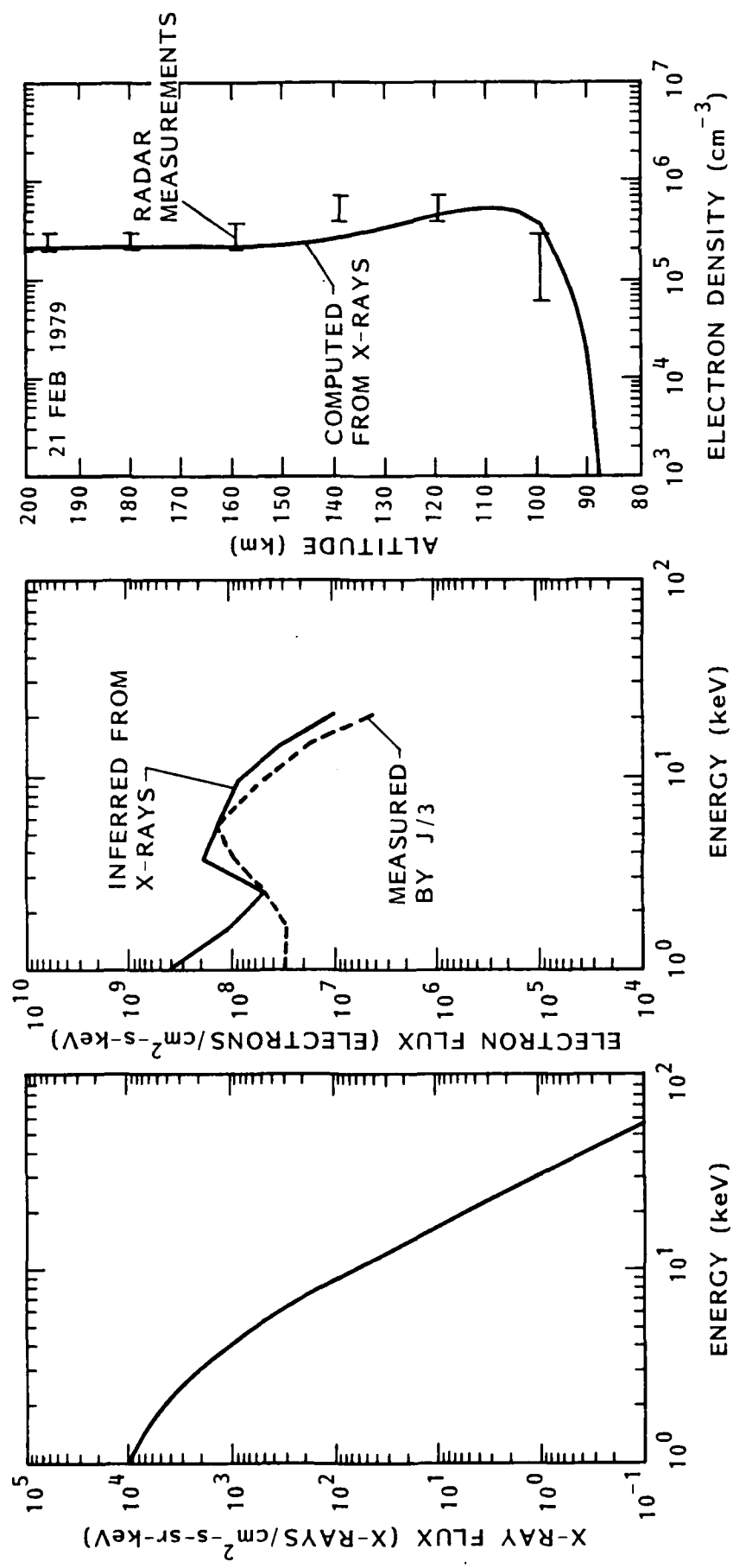


FIGURE 3

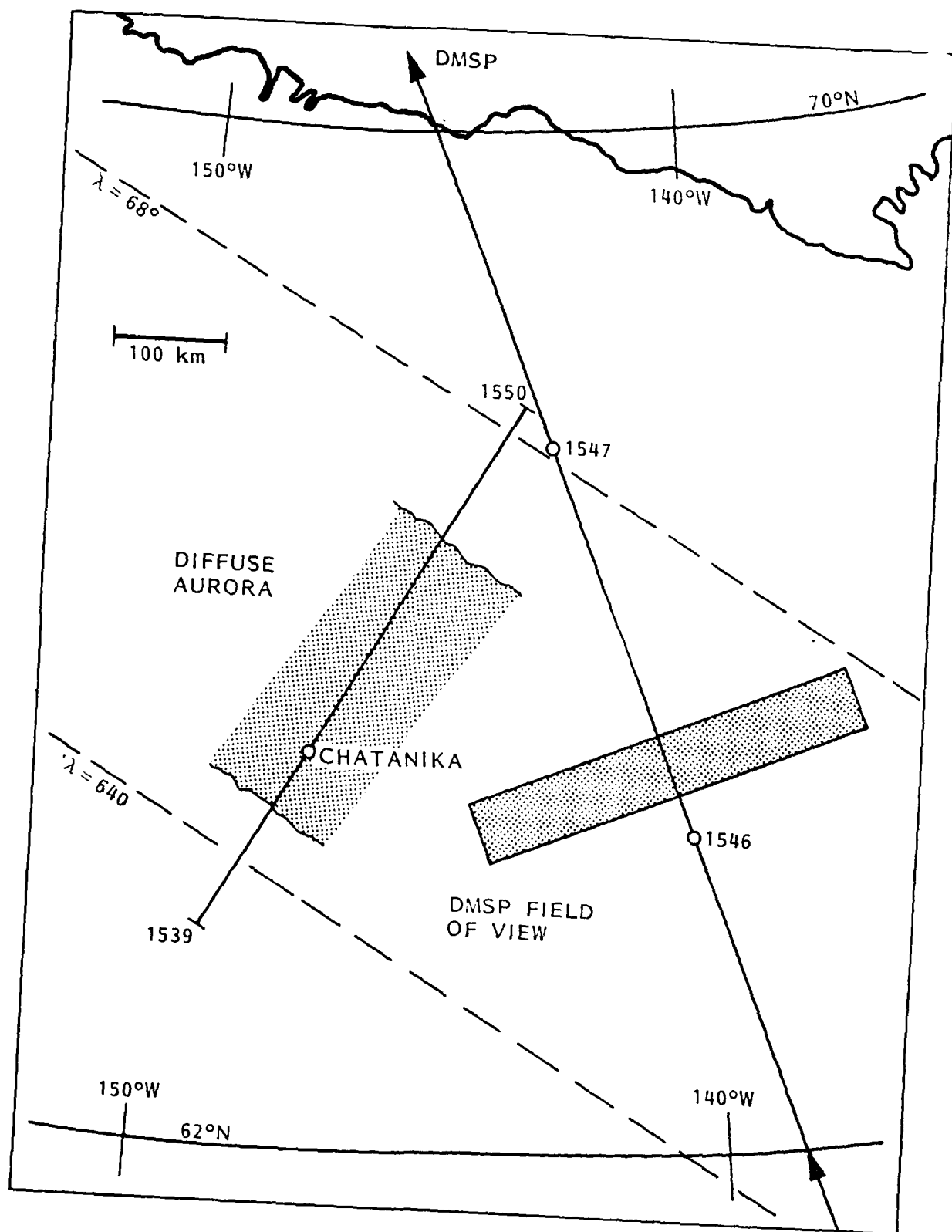


FIGURE 4

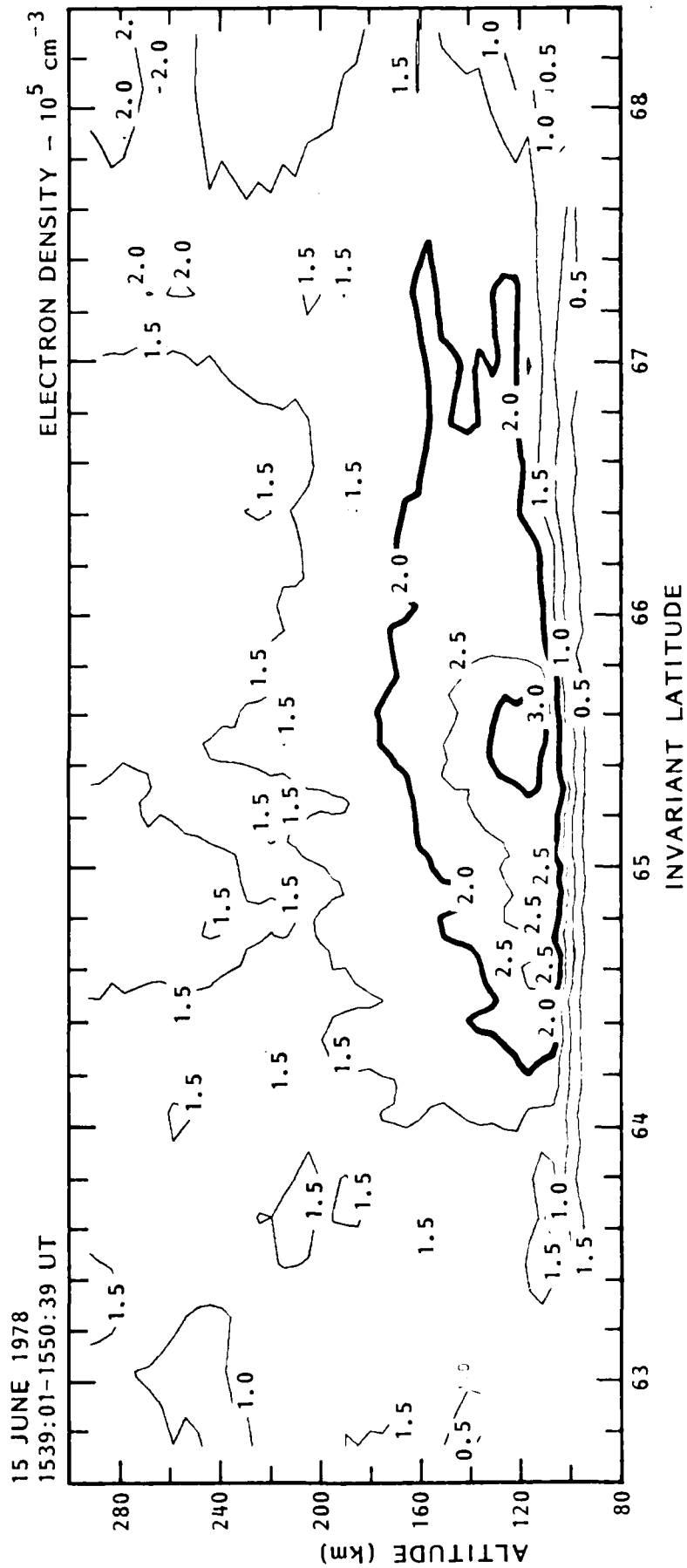


FIGURE 5

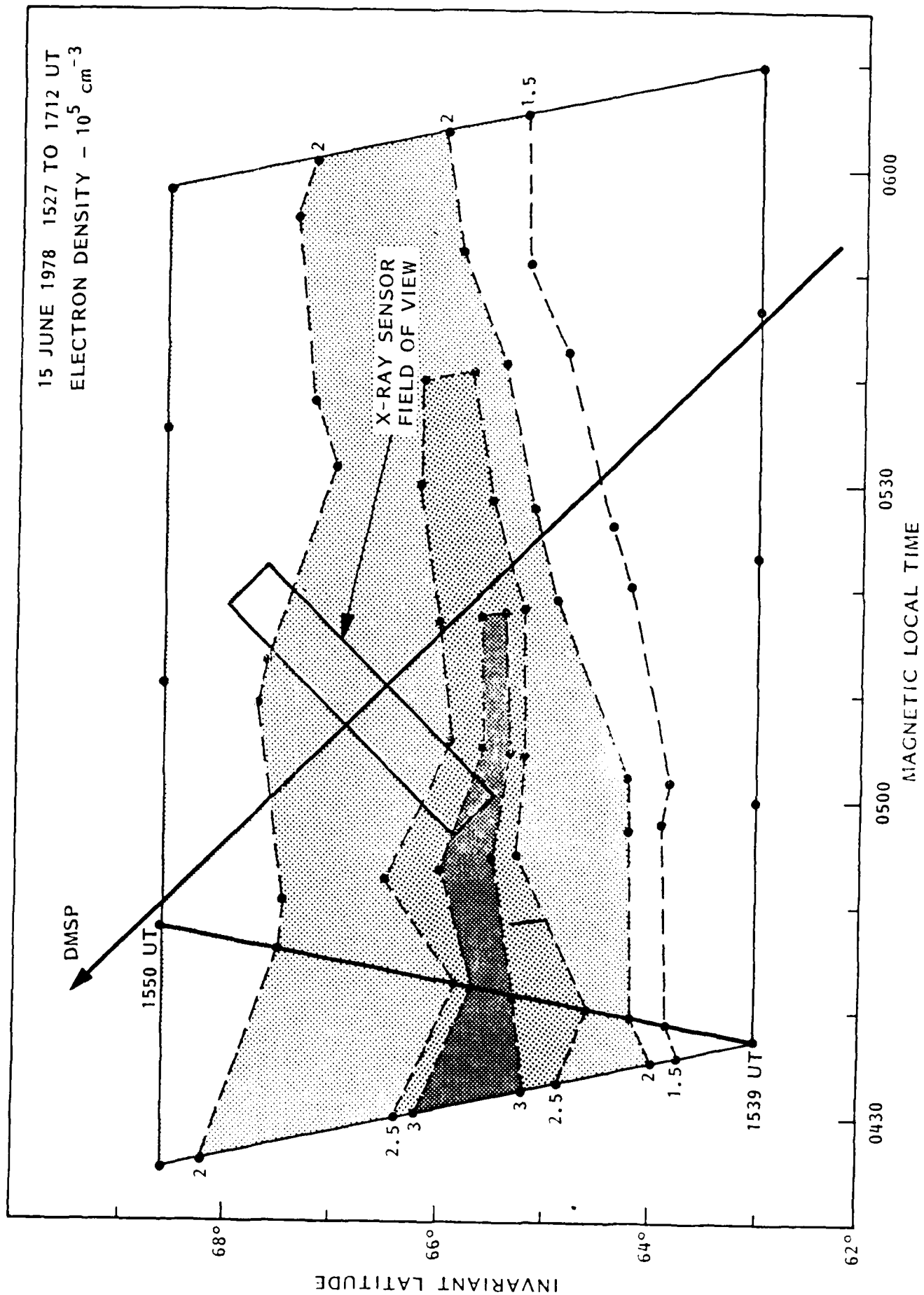


FIGURE 6

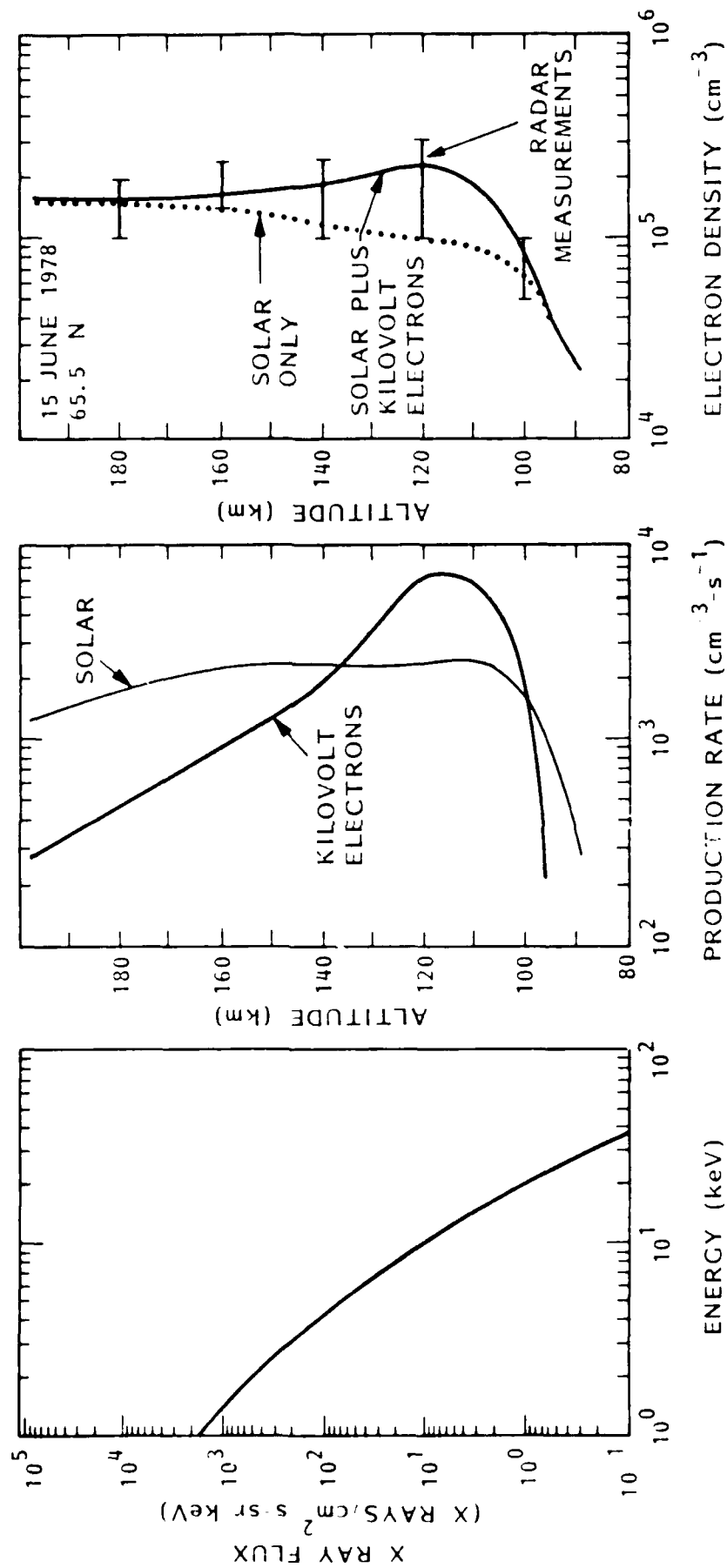


FIGURE 7

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